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The potential influence of cognitive linguistics in second language teaching

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ABSTRACT

Any development in the field of linguistics has the potential to influence second language teaching. However, the applications of cognitive linguistics to second language teaching have not received much attention from scholars. This essay builds upon theories from cognitive linguistics, selecting the ideas that have the most potential to benefit second language teaching and suggesting some ways in which cognitive linguistics could be applied to second language teaching. Then this project analyzes some of the challenges that have to be overcome in order to apply cognitive linguistics to second language teaching in a more efficient way. Finally, this essay proposes task-based language teaching as the most suitable teaching approach to benefit from cognitive linguistics.

Key-words: cognitive linguistics, applied linguistics, second language teaching, task-based language teaching.

RESUMEN

Cualquier desarrollo en el campo de la lingüística puede, potencialmente, tener un efecto en la docencia de lenguas extranjeras. Sin embargo, las aplicaciones de la lingüística cognitiva en el campo de la docencia de lenguas extranjeras no han recibido demasiada atención por parte de los expertos en la materia. Este trabajo se basa en las teorías del campo de la lingüística cognitiva y selecciona las ideas que tienen más potencial para beneficiar a la docencia de lenguas extranjeras y propone cómo estas ideas se podrían aplicar. A continuación, este trabajo analiza algunos de los problemas que se han de tratar para poder aplicar la lingüística cognitiva de una manera más eficiente. Finalmente, este trabajo propone que el método de enseñanza basado en tareas es el método que encaja mejor con este movimiento lingüístico.

Palabras clave: lingüística cognitiva, lingüística aplicada, docencia de lenguas extranjeras, método de enseñanza basado en tareas.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Language teaching is grounded on theories from many different areas such as psychology and linguistics. Therefore, any breakthrough on these fields has the potential to have an effect on second language teaching. For example, in the 1930s, Skinners' behaviorism motivated what Long 2015 calls "Focus on Forms". Later on 1959, Chomsky wrote his "review of B.F. Skinner's verbal behavior" in which he rejected the behaviorist paradigm of stimulus and response. Chomsky's theory of generative grammar states that language acquisition is the result of innate syntactical knowledge. This assumption motivated what Long 2015 calls "Focus on Meaning". Then, in the 70s, linguists such as George Lackoff and Ronald Langacker rejected generative grammar's assumptions regarding the innateness of syntactical knowledge and started a school of linguistic thought known as cognitive linguistics, which attempts to characterize language in relation to more general cognitive processes. Even though cognitive linguistics has had a lot of impact in terms of linguistic theoretical breakthroughs, the potential applications of this linguistic movement for second language teaching have not received much attention from scholars. Therefore, the objective of this project is to explore the possible application of cognitive linguistics in the field of second language teaching. Firstly, part two will demonstrate why cognitive linguistics is worth exploring by analyzing the limitations of behaviorism and generative grammar in relation to cognitive linguistics. Additionally, part 2 will scrutinize and criticize the influence of behaviorism and generative grammar on second language teaching. Secondly, part 3 will describe and analyze the tenets of cognitive linguistics with the most potential to have a positive effect on second language teaching. Thirdly, part 4 will explore the problems and challenges that may arise while trying to apply cognitive linguistics to second language teaching. Finally, part 5 will propose task-based language teaching as the most suitable option to benefit from cognitive linguistics.

2. THE THEORETICAL ANTECEDENTS OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Cognitive linguistics comes from a group of linguistic and psychological theories that attempt to explain how languages are acquired, organized in the mind and used. Among these theories, behaviorism and Chomsky's theory of generative grammar

are two of the most influential ones. In order to reach a better understanding of how cognitive linguistics can contribute to second language teaching, it is very interesting to explore the limitations of these previous theories at the theoretical level, and how, as a result of these limitations, these theories influenced second language teaching in a way that has proven to be inefficient. In contrast to these theories, the theoretical scope of cognitive linguistics is less limited. Thus, it can shed light to some of the issues that the other theories cannot explain, potentially providing teachers with more tools to teach some aspects of the language that were either disregarded or approached in a way that has not work too well by previous linguistic theories. However, it must be bared in mind that the purpose of this part of the project is merely to put cognitive linguistics in perspective with previous theories. Thus, it will not deal directly with the specific ways in which cognitive linguistics can contribute to second language teaching. That will be discussed in the next part of the essay. To start with, this part of the project will show how the theories are related from a theoretical perspective and why the scope of cognitive linguistics is less limited. Then, it will analyze the impact that these theories had on second language teaching and why these approaches do not work.

2.1. The limitations of behaviorism

Behaviorism is a psychological theory of learning that emerges as a result of the attempt to make psychology a more rigorous and scientific field. In order to accomplish this, the object of behaviorist's investigations had to be something measurable and observable. Consequently, in contrast to generative grammar and cognitive linguistics, "Any consideration of mental process, which is by definition unobservable, fell outside their self-imposed range of interests."(Pritchard, 23, 2014). This extreme empiricism is precisely what limited the theory, preventing it from making any rational considerations regarding mental processes. Since the only observable parameter in learning was the changes in the behavior of the learners, behaviorism defined learning as the acquisition of a new behavior. Behaviorism's object of study was the relation between a response being made to a particular stimulus and how that response becomes a habit. When a response to a particular stimulus is to be learnt, the response must be rewarded in some way so that the same response is repeated in the future. This is known in Skinner's terms as "conditioning through positive reinforcement." Another way of conditioning can be achieved through "negative reinforcement" by pairing a particular response with an unpleasant follow up. When Behaviorists applied their theory to first language

acquisition, they "Hypothesized that when children imitated the language produced by those around them, their attempts to reproduce what they heard received 'positive reinforcement […]. Thus, children would continue to imitate and practice until they formed habits of correct Language use." (Ligthbown & Spada, 10, 2006). This hypothesis can also be applied to second language acquisition. To sum up, behaviorism is limited because it does not take any kind of mental process into account. Instead, it assumes that learning is just a change of behavior, in which the learner participation is almost non-existing, achieved through imitation and repetition of what is said in the input until that repetition creates a habit.

2.2. The limitations of generative grammar

Generative grammar emerged as the result of the rejection of the behaviorist paradigm of stimulus and response. One of the main reasons for this rejection was Chomsky's idea of "the poverty of stimulus" which states that "language learners can, on the basis of encountering finite examples of language, come to understand and produce novel combinations in a potentially infinite number of sentences." (Wakabayashi, 639, 2013). If language was the result of pure imitation of the input, like behaviorism proposed, learners would be unable to produce new sentences, which clearly is not the case. This simple fact proves that the learner's creativity plays a very important role in language acquisition and therefore, some mental processes must take place.[1] Both generative grammarians and cognitive linguists agree on this fact. However, both theories differ when it comes to define the mechanism responsible for these creative mental processes. The way generative grammar defines this mechanism is precisely what makes their theory more limited in terms of what the theory can explain. On the one hand, in cognitive linguistics "Basic cognitive abilities, such as prototype categorization or the imposition of figure and ground alignment, are held to play a pivotal role in linguistic competence." (Hilferty, 1, 2001). Thus, linguistic phenomena that cannot be understood in terms of pure grammatical abstractions, such as metaphors, or metonymy, have an explanation within cognitive linguistics because this theory can resort to these general basic cognitive abilities. On the other hand, generative grammar

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[1] Nevertheless, this is not to say that Chomsky was the only researcher to challenge the Behaviorist paradigm. As Lourdes Ortega points out, both Corder and Selinker made very important developments in inter-language theory and developmental sequences that caused the Behaviorist view of language acquisition as mere habit formation to be "rejected and replaced by a novel conceptualization of acquisition as creative construction." (Ortega, 172, 2013.)

assumes that there is a specific mental module that computes linguistic structures exclusively through syntactical rules provided by an innate competence known as universal grammar. The assumption of the existence of such a module that has nothing to do with general cognitive abilities is known as Modularity. The consequence of relying exclusively on grammatical abstractions to describe linguistic computation is that phenomena that cannot be expressed through grammatical rules have to be left without explanation. Thus, generative grammar ignores certain aspects of language that cannot be explained through grammatical or syntactical rules; as Hilferty 2001 states, "generative approaches to language subordinate the study of language to the search for mathematical elegance" (Hilferty, 5, 2001). Note that when Hilferty says "mathematical elegance", he is referring to the abstract rules of syntax. To sum up, generative grammar is less limited than behaviorism because the former acknowledges mental processes while the latter does not, but generative grammar is limited by the assumption that all language is explained through grammatical innate rules, which forces the theory to ignore many aspects of language that can be explained through more general cognitive processes.

2.3. The Influence of behaviorism on second language teaching

Now that the limitations of behaviorism and generative grammar have been addressed, it is interesting to explore how these theories and their limitations influenced second language teaching. To start with, as Long 2015 says, "influenced by neo-behaviorist psychology, a variety of strongly 'interventionists' positions [in language teaching] have been advocated." (Long, 17, 2015). Also known as "Focus on Forms" (note the final "s") these interventionist positions are usually taught following a Presentation, Practice and Production session structure (PPP) that is justified through the Behaviorist theory. Firstly, the Presentation stage is justified because the Behaviorist perspective disregards the learner's metal processes that allow learners to figure out rules by their own means. Therefore, linguistic knowledge has to be taught explicitly in teacher-centered classes in which each unit deals with one particular aspect of the grammar at a time, before moving to the next one. As Long 2015 states, "Language Teaching is conceptualized as a process of filling the learner's linguistic quiver one shiny arrow at a time" (Long, 20, 2015). In other words, Language teaching becomes an attempt of forcing linguistic knowledge into the learners' inter-language. Secondly, the presentation stage is justified because from a behaviorist point of view, the key to learn

a particular response (use of target language) to a given stimulus (grammar exercise) is repetition and the reward of the correct use of the target language. Thus, the item that is being learnt has to be practiced a lot in the form of simple and repetitive grammar exercises. As Long 2015 says, "Through practice, declarative knowledge is turned into procedural knowledge, and through further massive practice, automatized to such level that it is sufficient to pass as implicit knowledge" (Long, 18, 2015). A fill in the blanks exercise in which the students have to choose between the present perfect and the present simple is an excellent example of this repetitive grammar exercises. Finally, the Production stage is justified as a mean to determine if the explicitly taught knowledge has been automatized into implicit knowledge. For example, students are asked to write an essay; if the target language is used correctly, it is assumed that learners have acquired that single piece of grammar that they were supposed to learn and the teacher moves on to teach the next linguistic item.

Nevertheless, the focus on forms approach has two major problems. Firstly, they assume that learners can learn what they are taught at the moment that they are told when there is extensive evidence from second language acquisition research that proves that language acquisition is not that simple. For example, in order to learn how to produce negations or how to produce questions, learners must go through several developmental Stages[2] which cannot be skipped. As Long 2015 says, "instruction cannot make learners skip a stage or stages and move straight to the full native version of a construction."(Long, 23, 2015). Therefore, if a teacher tries to teach the negation in a foreign language class, not all the students will be at the same developmental stage and not everybody will be able to follow the class. Furthermore, effects such as "backsliding" or "u-shape behavior" which make learners go back and forth between early and late developmental stages are also inevitable. Consequently, even if students seem to have acquired a particular linguistic item, they need time to use the new linguistic item to acquire it. Otherwise, they will eventually forget it. Lastly, "children appear to imitate selectively. The choice of what to imitate seems to be based on something new that they have just begun to understand and use, not simply on what is available in the environment." (Lightbown & Spada, 11, 2006). Thus, even if the teacher intends to teach the negation, maybe some students are still paying attention to the verb "to be" or other linguistic item available in the input. The second major

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[2] To see developmental sequences in depth, read Lightbown & Spada pages 4-7.

problem that focus on forms approaches have is that they can cause affective problems. For example, ignoring the developmental stage in which students are can cause frustration because it can prevent students from acquiring the language at their own pace. This is not to say that explicit instruction is negative. In fact, "Instruction can facilitate development, but needs to be provided with respect for the learner's powerful cognitive contribution to the acquisition process, and appropriately timed, in harmony with the internal learner syllabus." (Long, 24, 2015). Another issue of concern with focus on forms is that while the exercises are simple and automatic, they can also be very boring for some learners. "Bright children can find programmed instruction or simplistic drill and practice situations unsatisfying and even boring." (Pritchard, 7, 2014). Thus, even if explicit instruction and practice can speed up the process of language acquisition, it should not be abused and, unfortunately, focus on forms relies too much on these resources.

2.4. The Influence of generative grammar on second language teaching

Chomsky's generative grammar motivated the "non-interventionist positions" or in Long's 2015 terms, "focus on meaning." The reason for this is the advances that second language acquisition researchers made on the developmental stages. "L2 learner's common errors and error types, and developmental sequences previous to instruction were interpreted as evidence of the continued workings of UG." (Long, 18, 2015). The assumption that universal grammar was still functional in second language acquisition implied that the learners retained the capacity for incidental learning. In other words, students could learn a language without explicit instruction. As a result, the role of the teacher switched from explaining grammatical rules explicitly, to recreating the natural conditions of first language acquisition, providing either genuine or modified input and making students engage into communicative activities. Examples of this approach would be CLIL programs and immersion programs.

However, focus on meaning approaches have four major problems. Firstly, they assume that universal grammar is still functional in adults. This assumption is highly debatable even within generative grammar itself. According to Gregg 2001, there are three different positions regarding the access to universal grammar in adults:[3] the "Full

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[3] In order to see different positions regarding the functionality of UG in the context of second language acquisition in depth, read Gregg 2001 pages 163 - 164.

access" position, the "No access" position and the "Limited access" position. The "Full access" position is the one that would support focus on meaning approaches, but it is also the less accepted because while in first language acquisition almost all the individuals achieve native-like competence, the results in second language acquisition are highly variable. Secondly, while it is true that the L1 is learnt just from the input without explicit instruction, it is important to emphasize that this process takes a lot of time of full linguistic immersion. In contrast, in a regular CLIL class the students are only immersed in the language as long as they are inside the class. Once they leave, the linguistic immersion is interrupted. Thus, the amount of linguistic immersion is not comparable to that of a native speaker. Thirdly, as it has been discussed above, explicit instruction can speed up the process of language acquisition. Therefore, paying little to no attention to form can actually be counter-productive. Finally, learning from positive evidence alone has the risk of leaving less salient features of the language being learned unnoticed. For example, a student of English as a foreign language could learn that some verbs in English allow dative alternation; it is as grammatical to say 'the teacher showed Koji the rule' as 'the teacher showed the rule to Koji.' However, "there are some verbs, like 'explain' which are Latinate in origin and which do not permit dative alternation while there are other verbs, like 'show', that are Anglo-Saxon in origin and do." (Ellis, 105, 2003). Therefore, as a result of an overgeneralization, the learner of English as a second language could assume that 'the teacher explained Koji the rule' is grammatical when actually it is not. The only way to make him notice that the later sentence is ungrammatical is by making him pay attention to form and making him understand the rule or in this case, the exception to the rule.

2.5. Summary of part 2

To sum up, cognitive linguistics is the result of the rejection of generative grammar's theory of language modularity and generative grammar results from a rejection of behaviorism's disregard for mental processes. Furthermore, cognitive linguistics is less limited that its predecessors. On the one hand, behaviorism is limited because it disregards any type of mental processes or creative active participation from students when they learn a second language. On the other hand, generative grammar goes one step closer to cognitive linguistics because it does actually acknowledge mental processes in second language acquisition. However, it is also limited because this theory is only interested in explaining language acquisition through a series of

innate abstract grammatical rules that does not take general cognitive processes into account. Both of these theories motivated approaches to language teaching that had several problems. However, being less limited than its predecessors, cognitive linguistics can potentially be beneficial to language teaching, explaining things that these other theories did not explain.

3. POTENTIAL APLICATIONS OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS TO SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

As it has been shown in part two, behaviourism and generative grammar had a tremendous effect on second language teaching. In contrast, cognitive linguistics is a movement that is yet to be exploited and that has a lot to offer to second language teaching in areas that have been disregarded by both behaviourism and generative grammar. Unlike behaviourism, cognitive linguistics takes into consideration mental processes that can explain how languages are learned beyond mere imitation of input, which in turn can help to develop new strategies that do not rely on the memorization of grammar rules. One of the most important contribution of cognitive linguistics in relation to Behaviourism is, as will be explained in 3.1, linguistic motivation, which shows that some of the linguistic aspects of language that have traditionally been taught as idiosyncratic, such as colocations and idioms, actually have a more systematic rationale. Furthermore, unlike generative grammar, cognitive linguistics does not rely on innate abstract grammatical rules to explain language acquisition. Instead, it explores how general cognitive processes such as conceptualization based on recurrent patterns of embodied perception of the world and metaphorical extension shape the way we use language. Actually, it is precisely this difference that allowed cognitive linguistics to explain linguistic motivation. Then, cognitive linguistics pays attention to the ways in which linguistic structures of the L1 can influence the way we perceive the world. This aspect of the theory is useful to predict linguistic subtleties that might be difficult to notice by learners on their own. Finally, cognitive linguistics rejects the sharp distinction between syntax and semantics that both behaviourism and generative grammar make. Instead, cognitive linguistics holds that grammar is meaningful, which has important implications for the teaching of a second language. This part of the project is devoted to explore the different ways in which cognitive linguistics can potentially influence second language teaching. To start with, this part of the essay will go through the most relevant theoretical underpinnings of cognitive linguistics to

explain how linguistic motivation works. Then, it will show how cognitive linguistics can help to predict and deal with the difficulties that may arise as the result of L1 influence on the way speakers understand and mentally construct the world, and finally, it will explore the implications that the meaningful nature of syntax can have on second language teaching.

3.1. Linguistic motivation

As Tyler 2011 says, "Traditional accounts have represented the semantics of English prepositions as arbitrary […]. Consequently, pedagogical treatments have often suggested memorization as the best strategy." (Tyler, 182, 2011). Further aspects of language that are traditionally described as idiosyncratic can be found in the field of pragmatics and syntax. For example the choice of using the past tense to show politeness such as in the sentence "I was wondering if I could have a word with you." However, if these arbitrary aspects of language are analysed from the point of view of cognitive linguistics, it can be shown that they are at least partly motivated. In other words, they are "neither arbitrary nor (fully) predictable either." (Boers & Lindstromberg, 309, 2006). Therefore, the application for second language teaching is pretty obvious; linguistic motivation offers an alternative way of introducing "idiosyncratic" elements of language in a more systematic way that prevents students from the burden of blindly memorize this apparently arbitrary aspects of language. The basic idea is that meaning is based on a general cognitive process known as "conceptualization" that allows humans to recognize and classify recurring patterns of experience when they interact with the world. When humans are able to express basic bodily patterns, such as spatial relations, they use metaphorical extensions to express more abstract concepts, such as feelings or sensations. Thus, metaphorical extensions provide speakers with a very productive and creative mechanism to talk about phenomena that are not directly accessible through the senses of our bodies. However, when a metaphor is used very frequently, the pattern becomes a lexical item with its own meaning and speakers do not realize that they are using a metaphor anymore. This is what is understood as a linguistic "construction." These constructions are precisely what are described as idiosyncratic aspects of language by more traditional formalist linguistics. One of the most accessible ways to exemplify how cognitive linguistics can explain linguistic motivation is through the examination of the semantics of prepositions. Nevertheless, cognitive linguistics can account for linguistic motivation at the syntactic

level and the pragmatic level as well. Therefore, this project will focus on prepositions and then, it will provide examples of linguistic motivation at the syntactic and pragmatic levels.

3.1.1. Linguistic motivation of the semantics of prepositions

The first thing to consider is that meaning is not based on absolute correspondence with the real world as generative grammar and behaviourism assume. Instead, "meaning as a mental phenomenon […] resides in conceptualizing activity." (Langacker, 68, 2008). In other words, meaning depends on the way we mentally understand and construe the world. Furthermore, conceptualizations are the result of "embodiment". That is, conceptualizations are "shaped by our human perceptions of and interaction with the real world." (Tyler, 184, 2011). The concept of conceptualization as the result of embodiment can be represented through "image schemas", which are defined by Lackoff as "relative simple structures that constantly recur in our everyday bodily experience: containers, paths, links, forces and in various orientations and relations: up-down, front-back…etc" (quoted by Schmid & Ungerer, 615, 2013). For example, the spatial relations expressed linguistically by the prepositions "to" and "on" are represented in the figures "1a" and "1b" respectably:
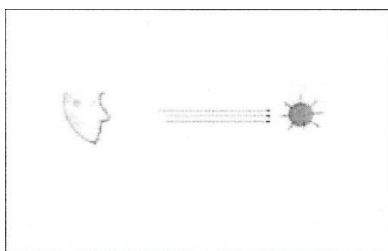
(a.) To   (b.) on
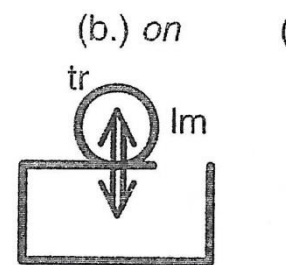
Figure 1, image schemas representing spatial relationships of prepositions "on" (Langacker, 69, 2008) & "to" (Tyler, 188, 2011)

In Langacker's 2008 terms, the conceptualization of a spatial relationship requires the "profiling"[4] of a "trajector"[5] that is understood in relation to a "landmark."[6]

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[4] "Profiling": understood as the focus of the speaker's attention on a primary focal participant of the spatial relation.
[5] "trajectory": understood as the primary focal participant

In the case of "to" in figure 1a the conceptualization involves a relation where the trajector is faced towards the landmark which is understood as a goal or endpoint. On the other hand, the conceptualization of "on" in figure 1b involves a relation where the "trajector is in contact with the upper surface of the landmark" (Langacker, 68, 2008). Nevertheless, spatial distribution alone does not constitute the totality of our linguistic knowledge about prepositions because meaning is encyclopaedic. That is, "everything we know about an entity can be regarded as contributing to the meaning of an expression that designates it". (Cadierno, 241, 2008). For example, in the case of the preposition "to", speakers know that "when combined with a verb of motion, 'to' marks the endpoint of the motion" (Tyler, 188, 2011). In the case of "on", speakers know that the landmark supports the trajector, and that if the landmark was not there, the trajectory would fall as the result of gravity. The spatial distribution that prepositions profile and the encyclopaedic knowledge constitute the core meaning of prepositions. Nevertheless, speakers do not limit the use of prepositions to designate spatial distributions. Instead, speakers use prepositions in linguistic colocations and idioms that, from a second language learner's perspective, might seem to be far from motivated. For example, the colocation "Be nice **to** your sister." would sound weird to a Spanish learner of English because in Spanish, the collocation would be "Sé bueno **con** tu hermana" (be nice **with** your sister)*. Another example with the preposition "on" would be "James is **on** drugs." which in Spanish would not even be expressed through a prepositional phrase (James está **sobre** drogas)*. Instead, Spanish native speakers would normally express this idea by means of an adjective phrase (James está **drogado**). These examples are precisely the type of colocations which usually are dealt with through blind memorization. However, these apparently arbitrary collocations are actually motivated as well through Metaphorical Extensions. In the case of "Be nice to your sister." the metaphor that is being used is that "Behaviour is an object that moves from point A to point B." (Tyler, 191, 2011). The adjective "nice" is the trajector that is directed to the landmark which in this case would be the receiver of the behaviour. In the case of "James is on drugs", the metaphor is that the drugs are supporting James; he depends on them as a result of his addiction, this little emphasis on drug dependency is not reflected on the Spanish construction "está drogado". With time, the usage of these metaphors becomes so frequent in the input that native speakers stop thinking of them as metaphors. Instead

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[6] "landmark": understood as the secondary focal participant.

they become idioms, colocations or constructs. Thus, they seem to be arbitrary even if they are not.

3.1.2. Linguistic motivation applied to syntax and pragmatics

As it has been demonstrated in 3.1.1, uses of colocations and idioms that traditionally have been portrayed as arbitrary by traditional grammars can be shown to be the result of metaphorical extensions applied to embodied perception of the physical world. However, metaphorical extensions can also account for syntactic and pragmatic principles of language that also have been seen as purely conventionalized constructions. This part of the project is going to provide some examples of how pragmatic and syntactic principles can be described as motivated, providing teachers with an alternative way of presenting these principles as something more than arbitrarily conventionalized rules that have to be memorized.

To start with, at the syntactic level, there is a very productive metaphor that Pavlovic defines as "closeness is strength of effect." (Pavlovic, 84, 2010). This metaphor is grounded on the physical perception of phenomena such as sound and light; the closer you are to the source of the sound or the light, the stronger is the effect it has on the perceiver. This metaphor is clearly being used in sentences such as "He declared the meeting to be official." Which is not as strong as "He declared the meeting official." The later sentence carries performativity while the former can be interpreted as mere observation. The reason is that the later sentence has the direct object and the complement of the object closer together than the former.

Furthermore, at the pragmatic level, there is a very productive metaphor that Tyler defines as "'now is here – then is there', which maps proximal and distal spatial phenomena and their real world consequences to temporal language." (Tyler, 460, 2008). The main implication is that when speakers choose to use the past tense, they are conceptualizing the situation as if they were physically distant from the listener and therefore, they had no physical control over the situation, leaving listeners in control. This metaphor is clearly being used in sentences such as "I was wondering if you could lend me your pen." In this example, the speaker is not saying that he was wondering if the listener could lend him the pen in the past. Instead, he is asking politely to the listener for a pen at the moment of the utterance. These syntactic subtleties are rarely addressed in traditional second language teaching classes and when they are actually

addressed, they are presented as idiosyncratic linguistic conventions that have to be learned by heart.

3.1.3. Advantages of applying linguistic motivation in second language teaching

Now that some of the traditional idiosyncratic elements of language have been shown to be at least partly motivated, it is interesting to specify some of the advantages that this depiction of language can have over the more traditional ways of linguistic analysis in the field of second language teaching. To start with, since analysing linguistic motivation implies highlighting a lot of semantic relations within the linguistic system, it can be assumed that explaining linguistic motivation to learners of a second language can lead to a deeper understanding of the target language. For example, motivating the meaning of the idiom "on drugs" by highlighting the embodied spatial relation of the preposition "on" might help the learner understand the little implications that the idiom has in the target language, in this case the dependency on the drug. Secondly, just as presenting the motivation of idioms can lead students to reach a better understanding of semantics, presenting pragmatics and syntax as motivated can potentially have the same effect on those areas. Thirdly, since "association through figurative thought of verbal information with a mental image facilitates recall." (Boers and Lindstromberg, 306, 2006). Therefore, the use of image schemas to explain embodied motivation should be beneficial to retention. And finally, as it has been said at the beginning of part 3, linguistic motivation provides teachers with an alternative way of presenting linguistic phenomena that have traditionally been described by behaviourism as arbitrarily conventionalized rules that have to be memorized. Since conceptualizations are the result of abstractions taken from recurrent embodied experiences with the world, which will more often than not coincide with the learner's own experiences, this model of representation make linguistic phenomena more understandable to learners.

3.2. *Influence of speakers' L1 constructions on their understanding of the world and linguistic transfer*

In the previous section it has been argued that a lot of linguistic constructions, that traditionally have been described as arbitrary, are actually motivated by the way humans conceptualize reality by means of their perceptual abilities, experiences with the real world and cognitive processes such as metaphorical extension that allow speakers to express abstract ideas from embodied experience. However, embodied experiences

are not the only source that motivates speakers' conceptualizations of reality. As Cadierno 2008 says, "in acquiring a native language, children learn particular ways of thinking for speaking [...] they learn to pay attention to specific dimensions of experience which are obligatorily enshrined in the grammatical categories of their language." (Cadierno, 247, 2008) The reason for this is that, embodied experiences can be conceptualized differently because they are subject to variables such as perspective. Additionally, languages do not necessarily resort to the same kind of metaphors to talk about more abstract concepts. Consequently, the constructions used in each language are different. The implication for learning a second language is that the first language to which native speakers are exposed is also a very important element to take into account, because it compels speakers to conceptualize reality in a particular way. That is, the information and the way of organising it in prototypical constructions of a given language, compels speakers to pay attention to certain aspects of a given event that is being described and less attention to other aspects of the same event. In order to get as close as possible to native like competence, learners of a foreign language need to understand how native speakers conceptualize and organize the information. If they rely in their native language, learners are likely to produce non target like constructions. The potential application of this knowledge is that it can help course designers and teachers to predict aspects of language that could be especially problematic to understand by learners, which could lead to the design of material that would draw students' attention to the differences in "thinking for speaking", mitigating the effects of L1 transfer. This part of the essay is going to contrast the way English constructions differ from Spanish constructions comparing the English prepositions "in" and "on" with the Spanish preposition "en" in order to show that these constructions have an effect on the conceptualization of the events that are taking place. Then, this part will do the same with the way both languages construct motion events. The differences are subtle and usually ignored by traditional learning courses.

3.2.1. Effects of L1 constructions in the conceptualization of prepositions

In Spanish, the preposition "en" can be used to express the relation of containment as in "El juguete está **en** la caja" (the toy is **in** the box), but it can also be used to express the relation of support as in "El juguete está **en** la mesa" (the toy is **on** the table). On the other hand, English uses "in" for containment and "on" for support. The distinction seems simple enough but when Spanish learners of English encounter

real uses of these prepositions in context they may encounter instances in which the use of the prepositions "in" and "on" are not that clear. For example, the colocation with "bus" is "Get **on** the bus." but the colocation with "car" is "Get **in** the car." This is really confusing for Spanish learners of English because from the Spanish point of view, both situations are apparently describing the same spatial relation of containment, which would translate into negative transfers from the part of Spanish learners of English such as "Get in the bus"*. This is because English spatial constructions do not only express geometry; they also express "dynamic-kinematic routines and specific knowledge of how objects are likely to interact in standard situations." (Coventry & Guijarro-Fuentes, 117, 2008). In English, the dynamic-kinematic routine that "in" evokes is what Coventry & Guijarro-Fuentes 2008 label as "location control."[7] For example, the construction "in the car" profiles a relation in which the change of location of the car translates into a change of location of the passenger, who cannot move from his seat. On the contrary, the construction "On the bus" profiles a relation in which the bus moves but the passenger can move within the space of the bus because the passenger has more space. Thus, English constructions of "in" conceptualises both spatial relation and location control, while Spanish "en" only conceptualises spatial relation. English speakers pay more attention to location control than Spanish speakers. The reason for this is that in English constructions, location control is constantly being profiled to determine the use of "on" or "in" while in Spanish this is not necessary because it will always be "en", which does not compel Spanish native speakers to pay attention to this feature of the spatial relation. Therefore, making Spanish aware of the way English speakers conceptualize spatial relations as not only geometric relations but also as dynamic-kinematic routines can help them acquiring more target like uses of the spatial prepositions.

3.2.2. Effects of L1 constructions in the conceptualization of motion events

As Cadierno 2008 says, "different languages package the semantic components of a motion event in different ways." (Cadierno, 243, 2008). These constructions compel speakers to conceptualize motion events in slightly different ways, drawing attention to particular components of the motion events. In order to get as close as possible to native-like competence when it comes to talking about motion, learners need

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[7] Location control implies that "the referent object constrains the location of the located object over time" (Coventry & Guijarro-Fuentes, 118, 2008)

to understand how native speakers conceptualize and organize the information of motion events. Figure number 2 below is a representation of how Spanish and English differ when it comes to constructing motion events. The terms "figure" and "ground" in figure number 2 are also from Langacker's 2008 theory of space grammar, and for the sake of simplicity, it is fair to say that they are equivalent to the terms used in part 3.1 of this project to represent spatial relations; figure is to trajector[8] as ground is to landmark[9]. As figure 2 demonstrates, there are two main differences between English and Spanish constructions of motion events:

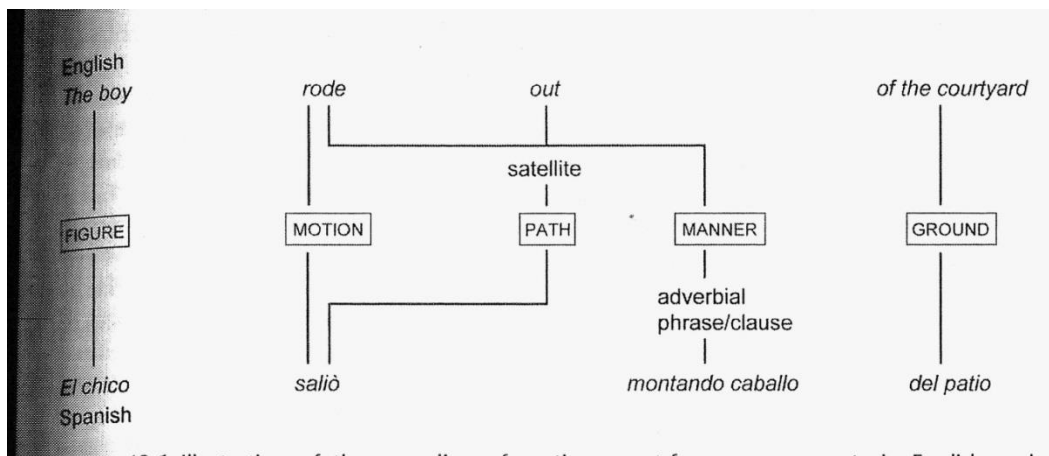Figure 2: illustration of the encoding of motion event frame components in English and Spanish. (Ungerer & Schmid,617, 2013).

On the one hand, English tends to "conflate motion and manner" (Cadierno, 245, 2008), while Spanish expresses manner using an adverbial phrase clause. The result of this difference is that English needs to use a wider variety of verbs of motion, such as rode, strode and dash, to accommodate the manner accordingly to the situation that is being described. In contrast, Spanish does not need to use very specific verbs because the specifications of the event are usually expressed by means of an optional adverbial phrase. Therefore, English speakers tend to pay more attention to manner than Spanish. On the other hand, English tends to express path by means of a satellite, while Spanish tends to conflate path and motion. The result of this is that English speakers systematically pay more attention to path than Spanish, because they need to specify the path in every sentence while Spanish speakers do not. Consequently, if English learners of Spanish rely too much on their systematic habit of including manner and path in their

[8] "Trajector": understood as the primary focal participant.
[9] "Landmark": understood as the secondary focal participant.

conceptualization of motion events when speaking in Spanish, they may end up producing non-target-like utterances such as "El chico cabalgó fuera del patio"* (the boy rode out of the courtyard), which is ungrammatical in Spanish. Spanish learners of English face the same kind of problem. If Spanish learners of English rely too much on their habits of conflating path and motion, potential ignoring manner, when they talk in English, they may end up producing non-target-like utterances. Therefore, in order to help students to produce more target-like sentences, teachers should draw learners' attention to these differences that might otherwise be unnoticed by students.

To sum up, the knowledge of construction's influence on conceptualization can potentially be useful for second language teaching in two ways. On the one hand, it can help teachers to predict areas of potential negative transfer. On the other hand, teachers can use this knowledge to draw students' attention to these differences in conceptualization and help them acquire more target-like uses of their second language.

3.3. The meaningfulness of syntax and the usage-based approach

In cognitive linguistics, there is not a clear-cut difference between syntax and semantics because syntax is meaningful. As Golberg 2006 says, "there do in fact exist correlations between formal linguistic patterns and meaning." (Goldberg, 72, 2006). The reason for this is that "constructions acquire a constructional meaning, which does not necessary depend on the meaning of the lexical items involved." (Ungerer & Shmid, 620, 2013). The potential application to second language teaching is that drawing learners' attention to the implications of selecting a particular grammatical construction in terms of semantics can lead to a deeper understanding of how the language works and motivate the use of more adequate target-like constructions for a particular situation. Figure 3 provides examples of how syntactic structure conveys meaning:

Form/Example	Meaning	Construction Label
1. Subj V Obl$_{path/loc}$ e.g. *The fly buzzed into the room.*	X moves Y$_{path/loc}$	**Intransitive Motion**
2. Subj V Obj Obl$_{path/loc}$ e.g. *Pat sneezed the foam off the cappuccino.*	X causes Y to move Z$_{path/loc}$	**Caused Motion**
3. Subj V Obj Obj2 e.g. *She faxed him a letter.*	X causes Y to receive Z	**Ditransitive**
4. Subj V Obj RP e.g. *She kissed him unconscious.*	X causes Y to become Z$_{state}$	**Resultative**

Figure 3: Examples of correlations between form and meaning. (Goldberg, 73, 2006)

As Lamb 2001 points out, "the ability to sneeze [in figure 3] to occur in such an expression is not a syntactic property we want to attribute to 'sneeze', normally an intransitive verb. Rather, its occurrence here is accounted for by the caused-motion construction itself" (Lamb, 185, 2001). The same observation can be made in the example "She kissed him unconsciously." (figure 3) in which the verb *kiss* would normally be intransitive. Therefore, the syntactic pattern gives the sentence a new meaning that does not depend on its lexical constituents, in this case the verb "kiss". Instead, the syntactic patterns in figure 3, acquire their semantics through usage events; not from innate grammatical knowledge. That is, if speakers tend to use a particular construction such as SVObl with a particular type of verb such as the verb of motion in "I go to the park", the pattern itself gains the meaning of intransitive motion. It is thus a matter of usage and frequency of colocation that fixes the form-meaning relation in a particular community of speakers. From this perspective, it is fair to say that "discourse is governed by the speakers' decision to express their conceptualizations in specific ways rather than by properties inherent to the system." (Achard, 436, 2008). That is, it is not the grammar or the semantics that constitute meaning, but a combination of both. This fact places the speakers' choice, of combining a given syntactic construction and particular semantic components in a particular way, at the very center of linguistic meaning instead of attributing meaning to the linguistic system alone. The implication for teaching is, as Achard 2008 points out, that "because language is largely a matter of conventionalized choice, maximal exposure to the conditions that favor the selection of a particular expression will in turn lead the students to exercise native-like decisions on their own."(Achard, 436, 2008). Therefore, students need exposure to naturalistic contexts from which the conventionalized uses of these grammatical constructions can be acquired. Drawing learners' attention to the implications of selecting a particular grammatical construction in terms of semantics is something that is rarely addressed in second language teaching programs. Nevertheless, it is an aspect that should be covered and hopefully will be addressed in second language classes.

3.4. Summary of part 3

To sum up, this part of the project has explored the different ways in which cognitive linguistics can potentially influence second language teaching. Firstly, part 3.1 has covered linguistic motivation, which provides teachers with an alternative way of presenting collocations and idioms that does not rely on blind memorization, facilitating

the acquisition and understanding of these constructions. Then, part 3.2 has covered how learners' L1 linguistic constructions influence their conceptualization of the world. The knowledge exposed in 3.2 has two major applications for second language teaching. On the one hand, it can help teachers to predict areas of potential negative transfer from L1 to L2. On the other hand, teachers can use this knowledge to draw students' attention to these differences in conceptualization and help them acquire more target-like uses of their second language. Finally, part 3.4 has covered the importance of emphasizing the semantic implications that come from choosing a particular construction, which normally is ignored by most second language teaching course-books. The application would be including materials that could draw learners' attention to these linguistic aspects. Nevertheless, although this part proposes what to include in second language teaching, this part has not exposed how these theoretical ideas should be addressed in class. Part 4 will analyze some of the problems that may arise when trying to apply cognitive linguistics to second language teaching and part 5 will propose the most suitable methodology to incorporate cognitive linguistics to second language teaching.

4. PROBLEMS AND CHALLENGES TO OVERCOME IN ORDER TO APPLY COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS TO SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Although cognitive linguistics has the potential to make interesting contributions to second language teaching, it must be bared in mind that researchers who work within the movement of cognitive linguistics are not necessarily interested in second language acquisition or second language teaching. In fact, there are very few works that are specially aimed to apply cognitive linguistics to second language teaching. Therefore, there are still a lot of challenges that need to be addressed in order to apply cognitive linguistics to the classroom in a more effective way.

The first consideration that must be taken into account is the lack of evidence that supports the effectiveness of cognitive linguistic-supported second language teaching. The main reason is that the few experiments designed to demonstrate the effectiveness of applying cognitive linguistics to second language teaching are limited in scale and results. This is not to say that the experiments have not given any positive results. Far from it, Tyler 2008, Tyler 2011, Cadierno 2008, Coventry & Guijarro-Fuentes 2008 among other researchers have obtained positive results using cognitive-linguistic-inspired language instruction. However, the results are not definite because

the groups were rather small in number and additionally, most of these experiments selected high-level students of English. Therefore, whether cognitive-linguistic-inspired instruction is effective or not with low-level and mid-level students still remains unknown. Therefore, further experimentation with a wider range of participants is needed in order to accurately test to which extent does cognitive-linguistic-inspired instruction has a positive effect on students and whether or not students beneficiate more from this kind of instruction than from a more traditional instruction.

The second consideration that must be bared in mind is that in order to apply cognitive linguistics to second language teaching, materials are still to be adapted. Otherwise, theories might look farfetched and difficult to second language learners. On the one hand, this implies making the terminology more accessible to the teaching community by simplifying it. For example, terms such as *landmark* and *trajector* are quite abstract and difficult to understand, but the very context in which researchers use these terms is also very abstract, which only makes the theory less accessible and less likely to be correctly adapted. On the other hand, the use of cognitive-linguistic-inspired materials should be used as another tool at the teacher's disposal, not as the only tool. In other words, even if linguistic motivation could explain all the linguistic idiosyncrasies, that fact would not imply that all the explanations would be equally useful or necessary. If the explanation can facilitate the acquisition of a particular difficult feature of the language in a systemic way such as in the case of spatial prepositions "in" and "on" in Spanish learners of English, then, the materials may be useful. But the relevance and usefulness must always depend on the students' necessities and capacities.

The last consideration is that, if cognitive linguistics is to be applied to second language teaching, the implication of the teaching community is essential. The reason for this is that cognitive linguists are not necessarily experts on second language teaching. Thus, cognitive linguistic researchers who actually show some interest in applying cognitive linguistics to second language teaching may make pedagogical recommendations that sometimes are not consistent with the findings of second language acquisition. For example, according to Hudson 2008, focus on forms is preferable because language in context "risks being counter-productive if it channels all of the learner's attention onto the activity and away from language." (Hudson, 111, 2008). However, as seen in part 2.3, decontextualized focus on forms is inconsistent with what is known about developmental stages and comes with the risk of provoking

affective problems. Another example would be Lamb 2001 who states that the best methodology to apply cognitive linguistics to second language teaching is the one developed by Leonard Bloomfield, which clearly is a behaviorist-inspired focus on forms. These examples illustrate the communicative gap between second language teaching and some cognitive linguists that ultimately make these sources less reliable. Nevertheless, some researchers, such as Cadierno 2008, Tyler 2011, Achard 2008 and Jacobsen 2012, advocate for focus on forms plus naturalistic context which approximates to what Long 2015 defines as focus on form (without the final "s"). This last proposal is precisely the one will be supported in part 5. Thus, if teachers want to apply cognitive linguistics, they have to be weary of some authors who may be very good when it comes to the theory, but not so good when it comes to applying the theory. If cognitive linguistics is to be applied to second language teaching, cognitive linguists and the teaching community need to collaborate with one another.

To sum up, there are three main difficulties to overcome in order to apply cognitive linguistics to the classroom. Firstly, the field requires of higher scale experimentation with a wider variety of participants to make the evidences for cognitive linguistics more reliable. Secondly, materials need to be adapted to be more accessible to teachers and learners alike and finally, the task of applying cognitive linguistics cannot depend on the knowledge of researchers alone. They might know a lot about the theory, but most of them require the help and implication of professional second language teachers.

5. TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING AS THE MOST SUITABLE METHODOLOGY TO BENEFIT FROM COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

As it has been exposed in part 4, one of the biggest problems is that cognitive linguists on their own, lack a lot of knowledge regarding pedagogical decisions and methodological options. Therefore, it is quite clear that the teaching community must get involved to apply cognitive linguistics. Nevertheless, the field of second language teaching offers a lot of different approaches to language teaching and scholars are far from reaching an agreement when it comes to deciding which the best teaching approach is. Among the many methodologies and approaches available in the field of second language teaching, the one that would make the most out of cognitive linguistics is task-based language teaching. To start with, this part of the project is going to provide

a basic account of what task-based language teaching is and how it works. Then, this part of the essay is going to justify why task-based language teaching is the best option to apply cognitive linguistics to the class. Finally, this part of the project is going to make some suggestions on how the different applications explored in part 3 would fit in task-based language teaching.

5.1. An overview of task-based language teaching

Task-based language teaching is an approach that in Long's 2015 terms would fall in the category of "focus on form" (without the final "s"). Like in "focus on forms" (notice the final "s") there is a focus on linguistic accuracy. However, unlike focus on forms, in task-based language teaching focus on language takes place in a meaningful context. It does so by sequencing sessions using *tasks* as the unit in the syllabus. A task could be defined as a goal-oriented process, which usually resembles a real-life situation involving communication between two or more people to get something done. For example, giving indications to a partner so he can find an object in a room could be considered a task. Furthermore, task-based language teaching is learner centered as opposed to the teacher-centered classes of focus on forms. That is, instead of trying to make students memorize linguistic rules, the teacher supports students by means of scaffolding and meaning negotiation while they actually perform the task using their own linguistic resources. Finally, one of the most important concepts of task-based language teaching is that focus on language arises incidentally when it is needed to complete the task. Teachers use several strategies to draw learners' attention to language, but students are not forced to learn a particular linguistic element just for the sake of learning it. Instead, students are put in a situation that requires a particular language to be accomplished. This leads students to notice their linguistic gaps, which draws students' attention to the language they need in order to complete the task, but the fulfillment of the task is the priority of the session.

The structure of a class that follows this approach is divided in three parts. The first part is known as "pre-task". This part introduces the topic through naturalistic input in the form of readings or visuals, and usually this part involves completing some comprehension activities in order to help learners pick up useful words and phrases from the input. Some strategies to make students focus on language are "input

flooding"[10] and "input enhancement"[11]. The second part is known as the "task cycle". It includes the performance of the task; some planning time that helps students to report to the rest of the class how they did the task and what they discovered/ decided and finally a presentation where students report the results to the rest of the class in which they receive feedback on content and form from the teacher. The final part is known as the "language focus" and it consists of the analysis of the students' reports, focusing on the linguistic resources that students used and adding which other resources could be useful. Then students conduct some activities to help them pay attention to form and review the linguistic content.

5.2. Rationale for this proposal

Now that the main ideas of what task-based language teaching is and how it works have been explored, this part of the project is going to justify why task-based language teaching is the best approach to apply cognitive linguistics to second language teaching.

To start with, the theoretical underpinnings of cognitive linguistics are consistent with task-based language teaching. As it has been exposed in part 2.2, cognitive linguistics does not support the assumption that human beings are born with a "language acquisition device" that allows them to acquire language effortlessly just from input. Instead, language is learnt using general cognitive abilities, which require the use of humans' limited processing capacity. That is, learners of a language cannot pay attention to all the linguistic features that are taking place during class. Therefore, from the point of view of cognitive linguistics, it is necessary to draw learners' attention to particular aspects of the language that they might be overlooking. Nevertheless, as it was exposed in 3.3, selecting a particular syntactic pattern to convey a meaning has an effect on semantics. Thus, the choice of a syntactic pattern does not depend on the rules of the system alone, but on the selection of the speaker to conceptualize a situation in a particular way. As Jacobsen 2012 points out, "Under cognitive linguistic accounts, a language speaker is actively choosing among linguistic forms in order to convey his/her specific vision, or conceptualization, of a given usage situation." (Jacobsen, 21, 2012). Since the selection of syntax depends on the speaker's choice in a particular context,

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[10] Provide learners with input in which there is a higher presence of the target items that are expected to be useful for the task.
[11] Highlight target items that are expected to be useful for the task.

language has to be taught in meaningful naturalistic contexts. Otherwise, learners will not be exposed to the situations that motivate the selection of a particular syntactical pattern and therefore they will not be able to acquire more target-like uses of the language. In conclusion, students need focus on form, but they also need meaningful contexts; task-based language teaching covers both needs.

Furthermore, task-based language teaching provides cognitive linguistics with a methodological framework more consistent with the theories from second language acquisition than focus on forms and focus on meaning approaches.[12] Firstly, task-based language teaching bypasses focus on meaning's problems with fossilization. As it has been exposed in part 2.4, one of the main problems of focus on meaning is that the lack of attention to form implies that the less salient features of language might be unnoticed by learners and, as a result, the inter-language may fossilize making learners produce non-target forms of the second language. Secondly, task-based language teaching bypasses focus on forms' problems with developmental stages because tasks allow students to rely on their own linguistic resources and expose them to the next developmental stages, allowing them to acquire language at their own pace. However, the goal is to promote language acquisition by making learners notice their linguistic gaps and adapting their inter-language, not about forcing their inter-language to skip the natural process of learning like focus on forms tries to do. Moreover, task-based language teaching also bypasses the affective problems that derive from focus on forms. Since students have more freedom to learn at their own pace, the frustration that would result from forcing their inter-language to skip the natural process of learning is avoided. Additionally, tasks are usually far more interesting than traditional grammatical exercises because they are learner centered and more engaging.

5.3. Proposals to apply cognitive linguistics to task-based language teaching

Now that the rationale behind the proposal of using task-based language teaching has been explored, this part is going to make some suggestions regarding the ways in which the knowledge of cognitive linguistics, which was explored in part 3 of this project, could be applied to a task-based language teaching session. There are three (bien!)ways in which students' attention can be drawn to form: during the "pre-task"

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[12] See part 2.3 and 2.4 to review the problems and inconsistencies of Focus on forms and focus on meaning in more detail.

through input enhancement and input flooding plus consciousness raising activities; reactively at any point of the session, but specially during the "task cycle"; and during the "language focus." However, not all the theories can be applied the same way.

To start with, the way constructions make speakers conceptualize in a particular way could be used to predict areas of difficult acquisition and help task designers developing materials regarding cross-linguistic differences and therefore, avoid negative transfer from the L1. Since cross-linguistic differences are relatively easy to predict, it is more likely that the task designer can include some focus on form on them in the materials. For example, a task may involve the description of a situation in which motion events could be necessary. In such a case, the designer could resort to input flooding to provide students with a lot of examples of the way the target language constructs motion events. Additionally, input enhancement could be useful to draw students' attention to the cross-linguistic differences. Furthermore, the pre-task could include some consciousness-raising activities. Finally, the "language focus" part could be used to further revision of cross-linguistic differences if the teacher thinks it is necessary.

In contrast, both linguistic motivation and the meaningfulness of grammar are less likely to be predicted by the task designer. Therefore, linguistic motivation and the meaningfulness of grammar should be used reactively when the teacher provides feedback instead of being directly included in the "pre-task" or in the "language focus." Jacobsen 2012 has suggested explaining motivation in the pre-task. However, explaining linguistic motivation may require too much time and putting it in the pre-task may involve unnecessary focus on form that may not be that relevant for the successful performance of the task. The same can be said of the little subtleties that arise from the decision of using a particular syntactic pattern in a given situation. Furthermore, predicting which specific linguistic item is going to require a detailed explanation is quite difficult. Nevertheless, if a student is constantly making the same mistake, the teacher may reactively resort to linguistic motivation in order to facilitate the students' understanding of the linguistic construction. In the case where most students are having problems with the same construction, the teacher may use the "language focus" part to explain linguistic motivation or to clarify the semantic implications of using a particular syntactic pattern in a particular context in order to benefit the whole class.

5.4. Summary of part 5

To sum up, task-based language teaching is the most suitable approach to language teaching to benefit from cognitive linguistics because both the theory and the approach recognize the importance of focus on linguistic form, but also recognize the importance of the context in which language is used. Furthermore, task-based language teaching is more consistent with what is known from the field of second language acquisition because it avoids some of the most important problems of focus on forms and focus on meaning. Therefore, it is a more valid theory. Furthermore, the knowledge of cognitive linguistics can be applied to task-based language teaching in three ways. It can be used in the Pre-task if it is predicted to be useful, it can be used as reactive feedback at any given point of the session and finally it can be used in the "language focus" part or "post-task". Nevertheless, some aspects of cognitive linguistics are more predictable to be relevant than others and therefore the ones who are less predictable should be used reactively to avoid unnecessary focus on form.

6. CONCLUSION

As it has been exposed in part 2, cognitive linguistics can account for aspects of language that have not received much attention from previous linguistic theories. Then, as it has been argued in part 3, among the many ideas that cognitive linguistics has explored, there are three that are especially relevant for second language teaching. Firstly, linguistic motivation provides teachers with an alternative way of presenting traditionally idiosyncratic aspects of language in a more systematic way. Secondly, the way the L1 compels students to conceptualize events can help teachers to predict areas of potential linguistic transfer from the L1 to the L2. Finally, the meaningfulness of grammar that results from usage events informs teachers of the importance of context and the importance of the decision of the speaker when choosing to pair a given syntactic pattern with certain lexical items, which supports that language teaching has to take place in more naturalistic contexts. However, as it has been said in part 4, cognitive linguistics is a movement that is yet to be explored when it comes to the application to second language teaching. Therefore, there are still challenges to overcome. Among them, the most crucial one is the lack of collaboration between researchers and the teacher community. Nevertheless, there are different teaching approaches within the field of second language teaching, and some cognitive linguists may not be acquainted

with all the options available. As part 5 has argued, task-based language teaching is the fittest approach to benefit from cognitive linguistics because the theoretical underpinnings of cognitive linguistics are consistent with task-based language teaching, and task-based language teaching provides cognitive linguistics with a methodological framework more consistent with the theories from second language acquisition than the other approaches described in part 2. However, it must be emphasized that cognitive linguistics is just another tool at the disposal of the teacher and has to be used mindfully when the teacher finds it to be necessary, without changing too much the focus of the class. In conclusion, cognitive linguistics is a movement that has a lot of potential for second language teaching, but there is still a lot of work to do. Both behaviorism and generative grammar had a tremendous effect on second language teaching. Whether cognitive linguistics gets to have such an impact is something that only time will tell.

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